DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 035 470 RC 003 924

AUTHOR	Moon, Seung Gyu; McCann, Glenn C.
TITLE	Subregional Variability of Adjustment Factors of Rural Families in the South.
INSTITUTION	Alabama Agricultural Experiment Station, Auburn.; Kentucky Univ., Lexington. Agricultural Experiment Station.; Louisiana State Univ., Baton Rouge. Agricultural Experiment Station.
SPONS AGENCY	Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. Economic Research Service.
REPORT NO	BULL-111
PUB DATE	Jan 66
NOTE	23p.
AVAILABLE FROM	North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, Raleigh, North Carolina 27607
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.25 HC-$1.25
DESCRIPTORS	*Adjustment Problems, *Geographic Regions, *Low Income Groups, Rural Areas, *Rural Family, Social Adjustment, Social Mobility, *Southern States
IDENTIFIERS	*Southern Regional Research Project S-44

ABSTRACT

The primary purposes of this study, stemming from Southern Regional Research Project S-44, were (a) to determine if there are any differences in adjustment factors of rural families in low-income areas within the South and (b) to indicate the manner in which the areas are distinctive from one another. The underlying theoretical framework was that adjustment is basically a specific process of social mobility in which a family moves from one level of adjustment to another, with the potentials it possesses, towards the achievement of goals of the family system. A sample of 1,870 was obtained from the open-country portion of 30 low-level-of-living and low-income counties in Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas. The results supported the hypotheses and identified differences in the 5 subregions, or generalized low-income areas: Appalachian Mountains and Border, Mississippi Delta, Sandy Coastal Plains, Southeastern Hilly, and Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains. (DK)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

ED035470

Subregional Variability of Adjustment Factors of Rural Families in the South

Seung Gyu Moon
Formerly Visiting Assistant Professor of Rural Sociology, N. C. State University at Raleigh; now Professor of Sociology, Chonpuk University, Chonju, Korea

Glenn C. McCann
Associate Professor of Rural Sociology, N. C. State University at Raleigh

Bulletin No. 111
Southern Cooperative Series
January, 1966

Agricultural Experiment Stations of Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas, and United States Department of Agriculture cooperating

RC003924

SOUTHERN COOPERATIVE SERIES

Bulletin No. 111

This bulletin is the 111th in the series of Southern Cooperative Bulletins. Under the procedure of cooperative publication, Bulletin No. 111 becomes, in effect, a separate publication for each of the cooperating stations and is mailed under the frank and indicia for each of the cooperating stations.

Since the bulletin is identical for all stations, it is suggested that copies be requested from only one source. Requests from outside the cooperating states should be mailed to the North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station.

E. V. Smith, Director, Alabama Agricultural Experiment Station, Auburn, Alabama.

J. R. Beckenbach, Director, Florida Agricultural Experiment Station, Gainesville, Florida.

R. L. Lovvorn, Director, North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, Raleigh, North Carolina

W. A. Seay, Director, Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station, Lexington, Kentucky.

C. W. Upp, Director, Louisiana Agricultural Experiment Station, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

H. H. Leveck, Director, Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, State College, Mississippi.

J. A. Ewing, Director, Tennessee Agricultural Experiment Station, Knoxville, Tennessee.

R. D. Lewis, Director, Texas Agricultural Experiment Station, College Station, Texas.

RC003924

Preface

This bulletin is one of a series of regional publications stemming from Southern Regional Research Project S-44. This project was entitled "Factors in the Adjustment of Families and Individuals in Low-Income Rural Areas of the South." The central focus of the project was *adjustment*, which was defined in terms of social as well as economic criteria, taking into account the interests of the individual and the family as well as those of the society of which they are a part. Adjustment in these terms may be contradictory at times because family and society interests may conflict. In a democratic society, however, it is important to keep the interests of the small social units in focus.

Adjustment, however, is not a static situation but is a constant adaptation to changing conditions. As the conditions change more rapidly, the discrepancy between the situation deemed desirable by the larger society and the situations of those individuals or families left out of the main stream of improvement tends to become large. If those left out are to be brought into more active participation in the changes that are taking place, then they must be made to feel that their situation is not desirable and that means are available to bring about a change. A number of the development programs are endeavoring to do just this.

Experience has shown that better descriptions are needed of the situations of the people on the fringes, of their attitudes toward their situations and of the possible means available to them to improve the situation if the programs are to be most effectively designed and executed. One of the purposes of the S-44 project has been to supplement localized descriptions with more general data on the situation of families in low-income areas (rural) and the attitudes of these families. The concern of this bulletin is with one aspect of the family situation and its relation to various attitudes and characteristics of the home and household members.

The S-44 Regional Project, approved in 1958, has actively involved eight southern states and one agency of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. The contributing projects came from the Agricultural Experiment Stations of Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas, and the Economic Research Service of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. Most of the data were secured from personal interviews of homemakers and heads of a self-weighting sample of open-country households drawn to be representative of low-income counties within the cooperating states (except Florida). These data were obtained using a common interview schedule of questions and were coded for punching into IBM cards using a regional code. The resulting state data decks of cards were distributed to each of the other states, thereby permitting regional analysis of the data by each of the participants. This bulletin represents part of the results of such regional analysis.

Other bulletins in this series either published or scheduled for publication include:

Factors Related to Levels-of-Living of Rural Homemakers in Low-Income Areas of Texas and the Southeast

Intensity of Job Mobility Aspiration Among Household Heads and Homemakers in Low-Income Areas of the Rural South

Joint Decision-Making Patterns and Related Factors Among Low-Income Rural Families

Migration of Rural Children in Low-Income Areas: A Southern Regional Study

Needs, Values and Occupational Adjustment in South-Central Appalachia

Occupation and Low-Income Rural People

Rural Households in Central Appalachia and the South: Similarities and Differences

Scaling Social Data: A Comparison of Various Techniques Used in Scale Construction

Social Participation of Rural Families in Low-Income Areas

C. L. Cleland, Chairman
S-44 Technical Committee

Contents

Preface 2

Introduction 5

Frame of Reference 6
- Concept of Adjustment 6
- Level and Potential of Adjustment 7

Method of Study 8
- Source of Data and Surveyed Areas 8
- Design of Analysis and Statistical Test 9

Analysis of the Subregional Variability of Adjustment Levels 11
- Relationship between Levels of Adjustment and the Subregions 11
- Subregional Variability of the Nine Levels of Adjustment ..16

Analysis of the Subregional Variability of Adjustment Potentials 22
- Relationships between Potentials of Adjustment and the Subregions 22
- Subregional Variability of the Sixteen Potentials of Adjustment 31

Summary and Implications 38
- Summary of Findings 39
- Practical Implications 41
- Suggestions for Further Research 42

Footnotes 44

Subregional Variability of Adjustment Factors of Rural Families in the South

Introduction

The growth and levels of socioeconomic development in the United States have varied widely among the different geographic sections and areas.[1] Such differential degrees of development are known, in part, as the result of a combination of (a) unequal endowment of natural and human resources, (b) differential impacts of the technological and industrial innovation, (c) institutional (social, economic, cultural, and political) impediments to resource mobility in the development processes, and (d) secular trends in production and price systems.[2] In addition to these factors, regional development is also strongly influenced by different public policies and action programs.[3]

The South, for example, has differed in many ways from other regions, and as such, it has served not only as an important unit of analysis for the social sciences, but also as an operational basis on which public programs and governmental administrations have been carried out.[4]

The fact that the South has certain common characteristics throughout the region does not mean, however, that it is homogeneous. Mayo, for instance, analyzing several recent population trends of the South, doubts if there is such a phenomenon as a southern region.[5] There are great diversities in terms of localities, resources, and types of farms[6] as well as in level of living and income for farm families within the South.[7] For these reasons more attention should be paid to the variation of the many characteristics within the region.

Similarly, it has become increasingly evident in recent years that most public planning and development programs are directed to the solution of local or area problems rather than of regional problems. This is true, for example, in the attention being devoted to the adjustment problems faced by farm families in low-income rural areas. The Rural Development Program, the Area Development Program, and the Act of Economic Opportunity are some of the comprehensive examples of such concern.[8]

The purposes of this study are (a) to determine if there are any differences in adjustment factors of rural families in low-income areas within the South, and (b) to indicate the manner in which the areas are distinctive from one another. It is believed that the study will furnish some information and insights which will be of value to change agencies concerned with area development and resource planning in the South.

Frame of Reference

Since the present study will treat the adjustment factors of rural families, it is necessary to clarify the concept of adjustment and the components involved in the process of adjustment.

Concept of Adjustment

Despite the fact that "adjustment" is a frequently used term in the literature of contemporary science, it is a term which is often ambiguous and difficult to define.[9] The complex nature and hence the diverse meanings of the term are depicted by Wright in an article in which he classifies the concept of adjustment into eight categories: (1) broad cultural concept; (2) technological, organizational, and institutional concept; (3) interaction concept; (4) adjustment striving concept; (5) adjustment status concept; (6) adjustment as a step in association concept; (7) normative and good adjustment concept; and (8) inclusive concept.[10]

Because of dissatisfaction with such segmental and frequently vague treatments of the subject, Mangalam and his associates have proposed a new definition based on a holistic approach which views adjustment as a phenomenon that affects man's biological, psychological, sociological and cultural aspects of life within a given interactional system.[11] Accordingly,

> Adjustment is a dynamic state in which the actors in a given meaningful interactional system are able to live in relation to other members of their significant membership-groups, satisfying their basic needs, fulfilling the responsibilities of their major roles, and realizing the value ends of the system while maintaining the identity and integrity of the actors' individual selves.[12]

It is believed that the above definition is relevant to this study in dealing with adjustment problems of rural families. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, adjustment will be viewed in the following context. Adjustment is a state of equilibrium in a sequence of dynamic activity of individuals or groups in a given interaction system. The purpose of this activity is the maintenance and solidarity of the system. Required for this activity is the use of available means and facilities of the system so that the members of the system may meet the internal and external changes, satisfy their needs, perform their major roles, and realize the goals of the system.

Some implications of this view may be made explicit.

First, adjustment is not the result of monotonous, repetitive behavior; instead, it is the result of dynamic activity in an effort to meet the changed or changing situation of the interactional system to which a man or a group belongs. Inasmuch as change comes from all the dimensions of human life, the adjustment behavior must be diverse and dynamic in order to deal with the new environmental demands.

Second, adjustment is a result of goal-directed rather than random activities. Although the immediate goal may be the integrity and solidarity of the system, the ultimate goal is the realization of the "life goals" of the system itself. In order to achieve this, the actor, whether an individual or a group not only responds to the change of the environment, but also initiates the change.

The third implication is that there are individual differences in the state and performance of adjustment as well as in the facilities utilized by the actor as a means of achieving the goals.

Level and Potential of Adjustment

Implicitly, the state of adjustment is a state of equilibrium. At the same time, the act of adjustment itself is necessarily an act of change—change presumably from a state which is considered *less adjusted* to a state which is considered *more adjusted*.[13] This process of change toward a more adjusted state from a less adjusted one may be termed the process of adjustment. For example, Kaufman and Dunkelberger in discussing this process say:

> . . . One may speak of the [adjustment] level of family, of the process of mobility by which it moves from one level to another, and of the potential it possesses for moving from one level to another.[14]

Thus viewed, then, the process of adjustment is basically a specific process of social mobility in which a family moves from one level of adjustment to another, with the potentials it possesses, towards the achievement of goals of the family system.

While the present study does not deal with the process of adjustment per se, the two major components involved in the process (level and potential of adjustment of the family system) are utilized as an analytical tool in an effort to meaningfully classify the family characteristics within the context of the above theoretical frame.

Level of Adjustment

Level of adjustment refers to the adjusted state and the achieved degree of adjustment with respect to realization of family goals. Inasmuch as there are great variations of the goals from one family to another and from one individual to another, in addition to the fact that the goals themselves are diverse and diffused in the family system, one is still faced with the questions: On what criteria can we evaluate and measure the degree of adjustment? In what way is a family to be regarded as "less adjusted" or "more adjusted" with respect to goal achievement?

Although there are several criteria that could be applied to evaluate the degree of adjustment, Eaton has suggested two major criteria, i.e., the attitudinal and the functional.[15] According to the attitudinal criterion, the state of adjustment of a family is determined by the extent to which the members of the family express themselves as satisfied or dissatisfied with the manner of life they have adopted

in order to meet the changed environment. Good adjustment here is, then, that with which the members of the family are satisfied; "maladjustment" or inadequate adjustments are those with which they are not satisfied. Applying the functional criterion, on the other hand, the adequacy of the adjustment of a family is determined, regardless of the personal attitudes of the members, by the extent to which the family has achieved the goals in conformity with the norms and expectations of the society to which it belongs.

In the present study we will examine the level of adjustment of rural families in seven areas employing the functional criterion rather than both criteria. As will be seen later, these areas include level of living, income, community participation, intrafamily decision making, home and farm tenure, and employment status. Using the functional criterion in the examination of a family's degree of adjustment, we should first have to determine the prevailing social norms in each of the seven areas so that the achieved degree of adjustment may be measured as "less adjusted" or "more adjusted" in the light of societal standards. The establishment of societal standards, however, is not an easy task, for they vary from one community to another and from one society to another. In the analyses of this study, therefore, the standards are based upon the sample, rather than upon the total American society, or the entire South.

Potential of Adjustment

A potential may be defined here as the latent force or resource which may influence the mechanisms of adjustment. In the process of adjustment aiming at the attainment of goals of the family system, potentials are considered to influence the mobility of family from one level of adjustment to another. Many factors or variables have been identified as mobility factors both in the industrial society[16] and in rural areas.[17]

For the purpose of this study certain variables have been selected as potentials of adjustment on the ground that each of them would play an important role as a physical, socioeconomical, or sociopsychological potential in the adjustment process of the family system. These include some 20 variables such as age, color, education, size of the family, capability to work, attitude toward mobility, and other family characteristics.

As will be seen, the similarities as well as the differences of each of the adjustment levels and potentials will be examined by relating these factors to the different low-income areas in the South. A detailed discussion regarding the design of the analysis, however, is presented in the following chapters.

Method of Study

Source of Data and Surveyed Areas

This study is based on data collected in connection with the Southern Regional Rural Sociology Research Project S-44, "Factors in

the Adjustment of Families and Individuals in Low-Income Rural Areas."[18] Data were obtained during the period of 1960-1961 by means of interviews conducted in a stratified, self-weighting sample of 1908 households located in the open-country portion of 30 low-income counties in the states of Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas. The sampling design was such that the 30 counties were also located in the five of six "low-income problem areas" in the South as designated by the United States Department of Agriculture.[19]

Since the present study examines the similarities and differences in adjustment factors of rural families among these five low-income problem areas or subregions, it would be appropriate at this time to identify each surveyed area with the sample size of families, the counties, and the states. It may be noted that the designation of the areas or subregions follows the code of S-44 project, and that these nominal designations will be used in the analysis.

Area 1: Appalachian Mountains and Border (656 families in 9 counties)
Kentucky—Harlan, Perry, Whitley, and Wolfe
North Carolina—Ashe
Tennessee—Hancock, Houston, Humphreys, and Union

Area 2: Mississippi Delta (147 families in 4 counties)
Louisiana—Franklin and Natachictoches
Mississippi—Coahoma and Tunica

Area 4: Sandy Coastal Plains (234 families in 5 counties)
Louisiana—Union
Texas—Burleson, Cass, Newton, and Upshur

Area 5: Southeastern Hilly (352 families in 4 counties)
Mississippi—Clay, Holmes, Lawrence, and Neshoba

Area 6: Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains (519 families in 8 counties)
Alabama—Clarke, Monroe, Montgomery, and Tallapoosa
Louisiana—East Feliciana and Livingston
North Carolina—Anson and Robeson

The location of the above counties and subregions is presented in Figure 1.

Design of Analysis and Statistical Test

Two principal analytical procedures were used in this study. The first was an analysis of the relationships between the low-income areas (or subregions) and the selected adjustment variables. The chi-square test for independence was used for testing the null hypothesis that there are no associations between the five subregions and the selected adjustment variables. The five percent significance level was chosen in the tests. For all cases where chi-square is signifi-

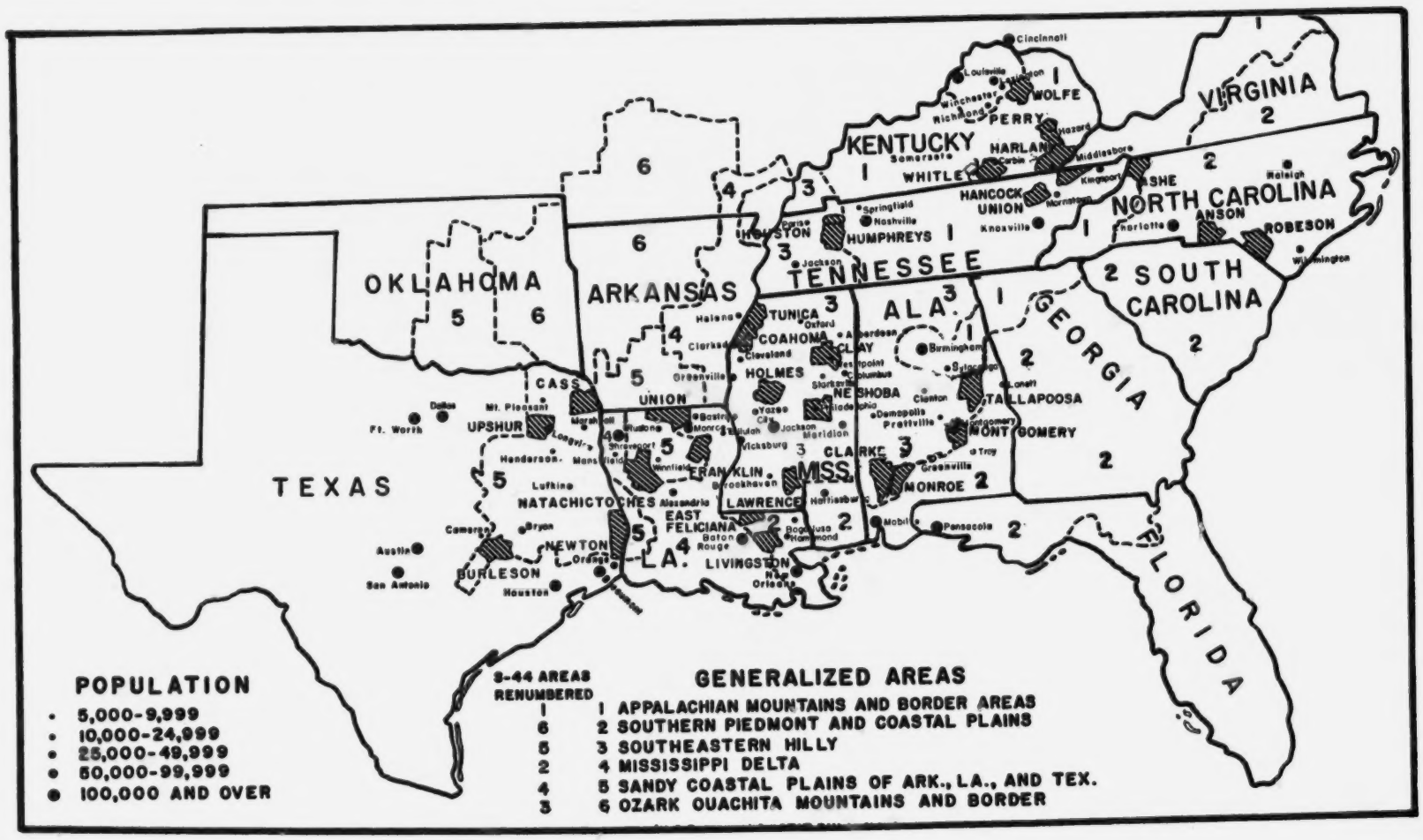

Figure 1. S-44 rural sociology project generalized low-income areas and sample counties

Source: United States Department of Agriculture, Stat. Bull. No. 204, March, 1957.

cant at or beyond the .05 level, Pearson's coefficient of mean square contingency (C) has been computed to indicate the strength of the over-all association.

The second procedure was concerned with the examination as to whether the five subregions were distinct with respect to those variables which were shown to be significantly related to the subregions. Ryan's method of adjusted significance levels for multiple comparison of proportions[20] was used for these tests.

Analysis of the Subregional Variability of Adjustment Levels

Relationship Between Levels of Adjustment and the Subregions

This section examines the relationship of the previously selected levels of adjustment to the subregions (or low-income problem areas) within the region.

Level of Living

In order to measure the level of living for the sample families, two Guttman type scales, each comprised of six items, were developed in the regional study.[21] The first scale, called the material possessions scale, includes mechanical refrigerator, gas or electric range, kitchen sink, piped water, bath or shower, and vacuum cleaner. The second scale, called the communications items scale, contains weekly or monthly magazine (other than farm, trade, and woman's magazines), telephone, daily newspaper, automobile, television, and radio.

The relationship between the subregions and the two levels of living scale scores are shown in Tables 1 and 2. It should be mentioned that the sample families were tetrachotomized on the basis of the material possessions scale scores, whereas a trichotomal classification was used on the communication items scale scores. As seen in the tables, the level of living as measured by the two scales is significantly related to the subregions.

Table 1. Material Possessions scale scores by subregion

Scale scores	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0-1	174 [a] (179.56)[b]	54 (36.73)	22 (60.86)	128 (95.40)	133 (138.45)	511
2-3	190 (174.29)	25 (35.66)	48 (59.07)	96 (92.60)	137 (134.38)	496
4-5	179 (192.21)	40 (39.32)	93 (65.15)	88 (102.12)	147 (148.20)	547
6	112 (108.94)	15 (22.29)	59 (36.92)	36 (57.88)	88 (83.97)	310
Total	655	134	222	348	505	1864

$X^2 = 90.24$ d.f. $= 12$ $P < .001$ $C = .2149$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 2. Communication item scale scores by subregion

Scale scores	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0-2	273 [a] (248.22) [b]	58 (50.78)	45 (84.13)	167 (131.88)	163 (190.99)	706
3	192 (206.03)	46 (42.15)	83 (69.83)	110 (109.46)	155 (158.53)	586
4-6	190 (200.75)	30 (41.07)	94 (68.04)	71 (106.66)	186 (154.48)	571
Total	655	134	222	348	504	1863

$X^2 = 70.84$ d.f. $= 8$ $P < .001$ $C = .1913$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Income

Income refers to the total family income received during the year preceding the interview. This includes net farm income, non-farm income, spouse income, and income from all other sources. The total family income is considered to be a measure of the family's economic adjustment level.

The relationship between the five subregions and the total family income is shown in Table 3. As seen in this table, the relationship is significant.

Table 3. Total family income by subregion

Income	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
$0-$999	233 [a] (228.25) [b]	37 (26.73)	16 (44.31)	141 (119.58)	154 (162.13)	581
$1000-$1999	151 (158.32)	28 (18.54)	38 (30.74)	78 (82.94)	108 (112.46)	403
$2000 or more	265 (262.43)	11 (30.73)	72 (50.95)	121 (137.48)	199 (186.41)	668
Total	649	76	126	340	461	1652

$X^2 = 57.94$ d.f. $= 8$ $P < .001$ $C = .1841$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Social Participation

The social participation of a family is considered to reflect the adjustment of the family to the community. A social participation score was computed for both the head and homemaker in such a manner that a score of one was assigned for each membership, two for each organization in which one-fourth or more of the meetings were attended, and three for each office or committee post held. Thus, it was possible for any head or homemaker to earn a maximum score of six for any one organization. Then the average of the head and homemaker participation scores, i.e., the sum of the two scores divided by two, was used as a measure of each family's community participation score. However, for those families in which the heads and homemakers are the same, the heads' scores were used.

Table 4 shows that the social participation of rural families is significantly associated with the five subregions.

Table 4. Intensity of social participation by subregion

Intensity scores	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0-1	238 [a] (160.10) [b]	32 (28.57)	29 (51.23)	45 (67.24)	89 (125.86)	433
2-3	184 (201.87)	59 (36.03)	90 (64.60)	97 (84.79)	116 (158.71)	546
4-6	123 (158.25)	19 (28.24)	67 (50.64)	82 (66.46)	137 (124.41)	428
7 or more	105 (129.78)	6 (23.16)	22 (41.53)	49 (54.51)	169 (102.02)	351
Total	650	116	208	273	511	1758

$X^2 = 197.81$ d.f. $= 12$ $P < .001$ $C = .3018$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Joint Decision Making

It was assumed that the joint decision making between husband and wife would reflect a level of companionship within the family.[22] In order to measure this aspect, an acceptable Guttman type scale was constructed using six items which were designed to yield positive or negative responses both for the husband and the wife in terms of joint decision making.[23] The six items included in the scale are: (1) whether the husband should change to a different job or kind of work; (2) what political candidate to vote for; (3) whether you should borrow money for business; (4) whether you should buy new things for the home; (5) whether the family should move to any other community; and (6) whether your 16-year-old son should quit school.

The joint decision making scale scores of both heads and homemakers by the five subregions are presented in Tables 5 and 6, respectively. As may be seen in these tables, for both heads and homemakers, there is significant relationship between the subregions and the joint decision making of rural families.

Table 5. Joint decision making scale scores for the head by subregion

Scale scores	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0-1	117 [a] (133.90) [b]	35 (27.96)	35 (50.82)	76 (72.06)	125 (103.26)	388
2-3	133 (136.32)	24 (28.47)	69 (51.74)	63 (73.36)	106 (105.11)	395
4-5	150 (131.14)	21 (27.39)	56 (49.77)	49 (70.58)	104 (101.12)	380
6	98 (96.64)	24 (20.18)	29 (36.6	80 (52.00)	49 (74.51)	280
Total	498	104	189	2	384	1443

$X^2 = 59.45$ d.f. $= 12$ $P < .001$ C 90

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 6. Joint decision making scale scores for the homemaker by subregion

Scale scores	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0-1	147[a] (151.18)[b]	39 (26.29)	33 (45.39)	76 (82.01)	126 (116.13)	421
2-3	103 (96.60)	16 (16.80)	28 (29.00)	38 (52.40)	84 (74.20)	269
4-5	107 (111.68)	10 (19.42)	33 (33.53)	51 (60.58)	110 (85.79)	311
6	126 (123.54)	19 (21.49)	51 (37.08)	97 (67.01)	51 (94.88)	344
Total	483	84	145	262	371	1345

$X^2 = 69.07$ d.f. $= 12$ $P < .001$ $C = .2209$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Home and Farm Tenure

Although both home and farm tenure statuses may be regarded as potentials of adjustment, they were dealt with here as levels of adjustment on the grounds that they would indicate the achieved degree of adjustment for the rural families. It should be noted that data for the farm tenure are applicable only to farm families.

As seen in the relationships shown in Tables 7 and 8, both home and farm tenure are significantly associated with the subregions.

Table 7. Home tenure by subregion

Tenure	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Own home	480[a] (430.89)[b]	44 (88.83)	182 (147.17)	242 (232.02)	289 (338.09)	1237
Cash rent	113 (102.41)	12 (21.11)	23 (34.98)	45 (55.14)	101 (80.36)	294
Other than cash rent or rent free	57 (116.70)	78 (24.06)	17 (39.85)	63 (62.84)	120 (91.55)	335
Total	650	134	222	350	510	1866

$X^2 = 233.73$ d.f. $= 8$ $P < .001$ $C = .3033$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 8. Farm tenure by subregion

Tenure	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Full owner	172[a] (153.50)[b]	6 (26.60)	28 (27.15)	150 (131.33)	79 (96.42)	435
All others	105 (123.50)	42 (21.40)	21 (21.85)	87 (105.67)	95 (77.58)	350
Total	277	48	49	237	174	785

$X^2 = 53.85$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .001$ $C = .2534$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Occupation of Head

One important area in the consideration of adjustment for the rural family is that of occupational adjustment. In the present study, occupation of head was classified into three categories on the basis of social prestige. The high-prestige occupation category includes farm operator or manager, manager, proprietor or professional, while the middle-prestige occupation category includes sales or clerical, and craftsmen, or foremen. Domestic or service workers, laborers, and farm laborers are classified in the low-prestige occupation category.

The occupation of head by subregion is presented in Table 9. As may be seen in this table, there is a significant association between the subregions and the occupation of head for the rural families.

Table 9. Occupation of head by subregion

Occupation	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
High	194 [a] (231.48) [b]	58 (39.94)	58 (67.00)	157 (124.54)	157 (161.04)	624
Middle	96 (84.95)	7 (14.66)	22 (24.59)	39 (45.71)	65 (59.09)	229
Low	249 (222.57)	28 (38.40)	76 (64.41)	94 (119.75)	153 (154.87)	600
Total	539	93	156	290	375	1453

$X^2 = 44.89$ d.f. $= 8$ $P < .001$ $C = .1732$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Summary

The above analyses show that all of the levels of adjustment—level of living (Tables 1 and 2), income (Table 3), social participation (Table 4), joint decision making (Tables 5 and 6), home and farm tenure (Tables 7 and 8), and occupation (Table 9)—are significantly associated with subregions (or low-income problem areas). From this one can infer that there is a regional difference with respect to each of the nine levels of adjustment; that is to say, the achieved levels of adjustment vary from one subregion to another.

A brief examination of the above tables also reveals some of the regional variability. For example, there are proportionately more families of the low level of living and low-income categories in Subregions 1, 2, and 5, as compared with Subregions 4 and 6. On the other hand, while Subregion 6 contains proportionately less of the farm and homeowners, the opposite is true in Subregion 1. It is interesting to note the fact that Subregion 2 is characterized by a disproportionately large number of families assigned to the low category for the majority of the levels. From this, it may be said that Subregion 2 is the least favorable low-income area in the region in terms of the levels of adjustment measured in the present study.

The above findings, however, do not show how specifically each of the nine adjustment levels varies when each of the five subregions is compared to each of the other subregions. Therefore, a further analysis is required.

Subregional Variability of the Nine Levels of Adjustment

In order to investigate the variability of the nine adjustment levels within the region, each of the five subregions was related to each of the other subregions with respect to each of the nine levels. A comparison of two low-income areas or subregions at a time yielded ten possible combinations of the five subregions for each variable, hence, 90 combinations for the nine levels of adjustment. The method of adjusted significance levels for multiple comparison of proportions developed by Ryan[24] was used to test the significance of the difference of proportions between each of the 90 possible combinations. The proportion of each variable for each subregion and the significant differences between subregion pair proportions are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Levels of adjustment of five subregions with significant differences between subregion pair proportions[a]

Levels of adjustment	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6
Proportion of families with low material possessions scale scores: 0-3	.556[b]	.590	.315	.644	.535
	Four subregion pairs are significantly different:				
	Subregions 1 and 4			Subregions 2 and 4	
	Subregions 4 and 5			Subregions 4 and 6	
Proportion of families with low communication items scale scores: 0-3	.710	.776	.577	.796	.631
	Seven subregion pairs are significantly different:				
	Subregions 1 and 4			Subregions 1 and 5	
	Subregions 1 and 6			Subregions 2 and 4	
	Subregions 2 and 6			Subregions 4 and 5	
	Subregions 5 and 6				
Proportion of families with total family income of $1,499 and less	.490	.711	.294	.565	.462
	Eight subregion pairs are significantly different:				
	Subregions 1 and 2			Subregions 1 and 4	
	Subregions 2 and 4			Subregions 2 and 5	
	Subregions 2 and 6			Subregions 4 and 5	
	Subregions 4 and 6			Subregions 5 and 6	
Proportion of families with low social participation scores 0-3	.649	.785	.572	.520	.401
	Eight subregion pairs are significantly different:				
	Subregions 1 and 2			Subregions 1 and 5	
	Subregions 1 and 6			Subregions 2 and 4	
	Subregions 2 and 5			Subregions 2 and 6	
	Subregions 4 and 6			Subregions 5 and 6	

Table 10. (continued)

Levels of adjustment	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6
Proportion of families with low joint decision making scale scores for head: 0-3	.518	.655	.421	.435	.566
	Four subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 2 and 5; Subregions 4 and 6; Subregions 5 and 6				
Proportion of families with low joint decision making scale scores for homemaker: 0-3	.502	.567	.550	.519	.602
	No one of the subregions pairs is significantly different.				
Proportion of home owners	.739	.328	.820	.691	.567
	Nine subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 2; Subregions 1 and 4; Subregions 1 and 6; Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 2 and 5; Subregions 2 and 6; Subregions 4 and 5; Subregions 4 and 6; Subregions 5 and 6				
Proportion of farmers with full ownership	.621	.125	.571	.633	.454
	Five subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 2; Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 2 and 5; Subregions 2 and 6; Subregions 5 and 6				
Proportion of high-prestige occupation	.360	.624	.372	.541	.419
	Six subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 2; Subregions 1 and 5; Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 2 and 6; Subregions 4 and 5; Subregions 5 and 6				

[a] *The Ryan method of adjusted significance levels for multiple comparison of proportions at the .05 probability level experimentwise was used to test the significance of the difference of the paired proportions.*
[b] *Computed proportions, e.g., .556 = 364 ÷ 655 (Table 1).*

Out of a total of 90 tests of significance for the nine variables in the analysis of pairs of subregions, 51 or 56.6 percent are significant. Of the nine variables considered, only homemaker's decision making did not vary at all. Home tenure varied most between subregions as nine out of ten tests resulted in a significant difference. Only in the paired comparisons between Subregions 1 and 5 was there no significant difference for this variable. Also outstanding, in terms of significance, are the two variables income and social participation for which only two paired comparisons did not result in a significant difference. For the variable income, no significance is found in the paired comparisons of Subregions 1 and 5 and Subregions 1 and 6. On the other hand, for the variable social participation, the paired comparisons of Subregions 1 and 4 and Subregions 4 and 5 did not result in a significant difference.

It is interesting to find that the two measures of level of living are slightly different from each other in the results of significance. While the communication items variable is found to be significant in seven of the ten tests, the material possessions variable is significant only in four tests. With respect to the variable occupation of head, six of the ten tests are significant. The significance for this variable is found in the paired comparisons of Subregions 1 and 2, Subregions 1 and 5, Subregions 2 and 4, Subregions 2 and 6, Subregions 4 and 5, and Subregions 5 and 6.

These significant differences are summarized in two different tables. Table 11 shows the significance of each of the nine variables by paired subregions, while Table 12 presents a summary of the frequency distribution of significant differences between each combination of subregions for the nine variables. From these findings, one is able to examine the distinctiveness of the five subregions. For each subregion related to each of the other four subregions with respect to each of the nine variables, there are 36 tests of significance. This amounts to a total of 180 tests of significance, of which 90 are different tests. For the 90 different pairs of subregions, the number of significant differences in order of their frequencies are as follows: Subregions 2 has 24 significant differences; Subregion 4 has 22 significant differences; Subregion 6 has 21 significant differences; Subregion 5 has 20 significant differences; and Subregion 1 has 15 significant differences. On the basis of these results a discussion of the distinctiveness of each subregion is presented below in decreasing order of the frequency of the significant differences.

Subregion 2 (Mississippi Delta)

Out of 36 tests of significance for this subregion, 24 are significant. These 24 significant differences are broken down as follows: 2 for the joint decision making of head; 3 each for the level of living and the occupation of head; and 4 each for the total family income, social participation, home tenure, and farm tenure. On the basis of the number of significant differences, Subregion 2 appears to be the most distinctive of all the five subregions.

At the same time, this subregion has turned out to be the least "adjusted" among the five subregions in terms of the levels of adjustment measured in this study. In eight of the nine levels of adjustment Subregion 2 ranked either lowest or next to lowest among the subregions. Proportionately, this subregion has more families with low income, low social participation, low joint decision making scores for head, homes rented, and farms not-fully-owned than any other subregion. Subregion 2 has proportionately fewer families with lower scores than Subregion 5 only in the two measures of level of living.

Although Subregion 2 ranked highest among the subregions in the occupational level, this was due to the fact that the farm operators, regardless of their ownership, were classified in the high-prestige occupation. Actually, most of the farm operators in this subregion are not full owners as indicated in the farm tenure (Table 10).

Table 11. Significant differences in nine levels of adjustment by paired subregions [a]

Paired subregions	Material possessions	Communication items	Income	Social participation	Head's joint decision	Homemaker's joint decision	Home tenure	Farm tenure	Head's occupation	Total number of significant differences
Subregions 1 and 2	–	–	x	x	–	–	x	x	x	5
Subregions 1 and 4	x	x	x	–	–	–	x	–	–	4
Subregions 1 and 5	–	x	–	x	–	–	–	–	x	3
Subregions 1 and 6	–	x	–	x	–	–	x	–	–	3
Subregions 2 and 4	x	x	x	x	x	–	x	x	x	8
Subregions 2 and 5	–	–	x	x	x	–	x	x	–	5
Subregions 2 and 6	–	x	x	x	–	–	x	x	x	6
Subregions 4 and 5	x	x	x	–	–	–	x	–	x	5
Subregions 4 and 6	x	–	x	x	x	–	x	–	–	5
Subregions 5 and 6	–	x	x	x	x	–	x	x	x	7
Total number of significant differences	4	7	8	8	4	0	9	5	6	51

[a] *"x" indicates significant difference and "—" indicates no significant difference*

Table 12. Distinctiveness of subregions by frequency of significant differences between each pair of subregions for nine variables of adjustment levels

Subregion	Number of significant differences out of 9 variables when compared with subregion			
	2	4	5	6
1	5	4	3	3
2		8	5	6
4			5	5
5				7

Furthermore, as opposed to other subregions, this subregion is proportionately overrepresented by the category of farm operators. While the percentage of farm operators for all the subregions is only 36.2, the comparable figure for Subregion 2 is 52. Therefore, if the part-owners and the tenants were separated from the full-owner operators, the result should have been clearly different.

Subregion 4 (Sandy Coastal Plains)

Twenty-two of the 36 tests are significantly different for this subregion. Of these 22 significant differences, 1 is for farm tenure; 2 each are for the social participation, joint decision making of head, and occupation of head; 4 each are for total family income and home tenure; and 7 are for the level of living. In terms of the number of significant differences, Subregion 4 is the second most distinctive subregion, next only to Subregion 2. More important than the sheer number of significant differences, however, is the fact that this subregion appears to be the most "adjusted" subregion with the highest levels of adjustment.

No subregion excels Subregion 4 in the proportion of families having high level of living scores for both level of living scales, a high total income, a high joint decision making score for the head, and homes owned. On the other hand, Subregion 4 has proportionately more families with rented farms as compared with Subregions 1 and 5. Also, the proportion of Subregion 4 families having low participation is higher than that of Subregions 5 and 6, but lower than that of Subregions 1 and 2. For the occupational level the proportion of Subregion 4 having heads with a high-prestige occupation is larger than that of Subregion 1, but smaller than that of the remaining subregions.

Subregion 6 (Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains)

For this subregion, 21 of the 36 tests are significant. On the basis of the variables, these 21 significant differences may be broken down as follows: 2 each for the joint decision making of head, the farm tenure, and the occupation of head; 3 for the total family income; and 4 each for the level of living, the social participation, and the home tenure.

In terms of the proportions of high level of living scores and a high income, Subregion 6 ranks second to Subregion 4 among the subregions. However, no subregion has proportionately more families with a high level of social participation than this subregion. For the three variables, joint decision making score of head, farm tenure, and home tenure, this subregion ranks second from the bottom in terms of the achieved degree of adjustment. The proportion of families in this subregion having a high-prestige occupation is less than that of Subregions 2 and 5, but greater than that of Subregions 1 and 4.

Subregion 5 (Southeastern Hilly)

Twenty of the 36 tests are significant for this subregion. The 20 significant differences are: 2 each for the joint decision making of head and the farm tenure; 3 each for the family income, social participation, home tenure, and the occupation of head; and 4 for the level of living.

This subregion has the smallest proportion of families with high level of living scores for both scales among the subregions. For the total family income, Subregion 5 has proportionately more families with a low family income than any other subregion except Subregion 2. However, the proportion of families in Subregion 5 who are the full owners of farms is the greatest of all the subregions. On the other hand, each of the proportions of families in this subregion having a low participation, low joint decision making score for head, and a low-prestige occupation is greater than that of Subregions 6, 4, and 2, respectively. The proportion of families in Subregion 5 who own their homes is smaller than that of Subregions 1 and 4, but larger than that of Subregions 2 and 6.

Subregion 1 (Appalachian Mountains and Border)

Fifteen of the 36 tests are significant for this subregion. Of these significant differences, 1 is for farm tenure; 2 each are for total family income and occupation of head; 3 each are for social participation and home tenure; and 4 are for the level of living. On the basis of the number of significant differences, Subregion 1 seems to be the least distinctive of the five subregions.

While this subregion occupies the exact middle rank among the five subregions in the two levels of living scores, the family income, and the joint decision making of head, it ranks lowest in the occupation of head. The proportion of home owners in Subregion 1 is less than that of Subregion 4, but greater than that of the other subregions. Also, the proportion of full owners of farms in Subregion 1 is greater than any other subregion except Subregion 5.

Analysis of the Subregional Variability of Adjustment Potentials

Relationships Between Potentials of Adjustment and the Subregions

The relationship between 20 potentials of adjustment and the five subregions is examined in this section.

Age of Head and Homemaker

Age has been regarded as an important physical, sociological, and sociopsychological factor for adjustment. The relationship of age of both head and homemaker to the five subregions are presented in Tables 13 and 14, respectively. As may be seen in these tables, the age of head is significantly associated with the five subregions, while the age of homemaker is not.

Table 13. Age of head by subregion

Age of head	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Under 39	163 [a] (156.05) [b]	27 (31.78)	50 (50.42)	79 (83.40)	120 (117.35)	439
40-49	129 (138.99)	20 (28.31)	51 (44.91)	72 (74.28)	119 (104.51)	391
50-64	209 (207.24)	47 (42.21)	48 (66.96)	117 (110.76)	162 (155.83)	583
65 or more	152 (150.72)	39 (30.70)	62 (48.71)	81 (80.56)	90 (113.31)	424
Total	653	133	211	349	491	1837

$X^2 = 24.59$ d.f. $= 12$ $P < .02$ $C = .1149$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 14. Age of homemaker by subregion

Age of homemaker	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Under 39	202 [a] (194.68) [b]	31 (39.99)	66 (70.93)	101 (103.00)	155 (146.40)	555
40-49	111 (123.48)	25 (25.37)	49 (44.99)	73 (65.33)	94 (92.83)	352
50-64	148 (146.98)	34 (30.19)	54 (53.55)	77 (77.76)	106 (110.52)	419
65 or more	55 (50.86)	16 (10.45)	19 (18.53)	22 (26.91)	33 (38.25)	145
Total	516	106	188	273	388	1471

$X^2 = 11.32$ d.f. $= 12$ $P > .05$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Color

Due to its bearing on sociocultural and economic factors, color has been regarded as an important factor in understanding rural families. This is particularly true in the South where large numbers

of Negro families are engaged in agriculture. In the present study, color is considered to be an important potential factor for the socio-economic and psychological adjustment of rural families.

Table 15 shows that color is significantly associated with the subregions.

Table 15. Color by subregion

Color	Subregion					Total
	1	2	4	5	6	
White	643 [a] (479.29) [b]	68 (98.78)	171 (162.44)	185 (257.57)	305 (373.92)	1372
Nonwhite	12 (173.71)	67 (36.22)	51 (59.56)	167 (94.43)	206 (137.08)	503
Total	655	135	222	352	511	1875

$X^2 = 369.46$ d.f. $= 5$ $P < .001$ $C = .4057$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Education of Head and Homemaker

Education is regarded as a very important factor in the family's adjustment behavior. In the present study the number of grades completed by the household head and the homemaker was used as a measure of education for the family.

Tables 16 and 17 present the relationship of the subregions to education of head and homemaker, respectively. As seen in these

Table 16. Education of head by subregion

Grade completed	Subregion					Total
	1	2	4	5	6	
0-4	171 [a] (173.91) [b]	59 (35.3	41 (56.45)	78 (89.36)	135 (128.96)	484
5-7	177 (173.55)	25 (35.24)	53 (56.34)	83 (89.18)	145 (128.69)	483
8-11	239 (219.54)	29 (44.58)	75 (71.27)	128 (112.81)	140 (162.80)	611
12 or more	63 (83.00)	19 (16.86)	42 (26.94)	45 (42.65)	62 (61.55)	231
Total	650	132	211	334	482	1809

$X^2 = 53.86$ d.f. $= 12$ $P < .001$ $C = .1700$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 17. Education of homemaker by subregion

Grade completed	Subregion					Total
	1	2	4	5	6	
0-4	67 [a] (68.43) [b]	29 (14.08)	14 (24.98)	29 (35.48)	55 (51.03)	194
5-7	142 (132.28)	26 (27.23)	50 (48.29)	65 (68.58)	92 (98.62)	375
8-11	223 (214.82)	33 (44.22)	82 (78.42)	114 (111.37)	157 (160.17)	609
12 or more	83 (99.47)	18 (20.47)	42 (36.31)	59 (51.57)	80 (74.18)	282
Total	515	106	188	267	384	1460

$X^2 = 32.51$ d.f. $= 12$ $P < .01$ $C = .1476$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

tables, education of both the head and the homemaker is significantly associated with the subregion.

Marital Status of Head

In the examination of the relation to the subregion, marital status of the head is dichotomized into "married" and "all others." The category of "all others" includes never married, divorced, separated, and widowed. Thus, the category of "married" actually represents the "complete" family in which both the head and the homemaker are residing. As seen in Table 18, the subregion is significantly associated with marital status of head.

Table 18. Marital status of head by subregion

Marital status	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Married	512 [a] (519.77) [b]	109 (107.29)	193 (174.05)	278 (279.75)	391 (402.14)	1483
All others	142 (134.23)	26 (27.71)	26 (44.95)	74 (72.25)	115 (113.86)	383
Total	654	135	219	352	506	1866

$X^2 = 12.31$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .02$ $C = .0801$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Type of Residence

The 1960 Census definition of rural farm and rural nonfarm[25] was used to classify the sample families. Since, in recent years, low-income farmers have been encouraged to move out of agriculture and industry has been encouraged to move into the low-income areas, type of residence is felt to be an important variable in the understanding of adjustment behavior of rural families. The rural nonfarm category was assumed to stand intermediate on a farm-urban continuum in many areas of sociocultural change. Table 19 shows that type of residence is significantly associated with the five subregions.

Table 19. Type of residence by subregion

Type of residence	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Rural farm	260 [a] (256.26) [b]	47 (40.21)	41 (63.47)	170 (135.23)	168 (190.83)	686
Rural nonfarm	390 (393.74)	55 (61.79)	120 (97.53)	173 (207.77)	316 (293.17)	1054
Total	650	102	161	343	484	1740

$X^2 = 34.38$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .001$ $C = .1393$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Ability of Head and Homemaker to Work

Ability of head and homemaker to work is considered to reflect essentially the physical potential of adjustment. This variable is

dichotomized into "fully able to work" and "all others." The latter category includes limited permanent disability, total disability, and retired (no disability). The relationships of the subregions to ability to work for head and homemaker are presented in Tables 20 and 21. As seen in these tables, the variable subregion is significantly associated with both ability of head to work and ability of homemaker to work.

Table 20. Ability of head to work by subregion

Ability to work	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Fully able	430 [a] (430.16) [b]	89 (88.93)	147 (137.69)	205 (231.22)	349 (332.01)	1220
All others	223 (222.84)	46 (46.07)	62 (71.32)	146 (119.78)	155 (171.99)	632
Total	653	135	209	351	504	1852

$X^2 = 13.11$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .02$ $C = .0836$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 21. Ability of homemaker to work by subregion

Ability to work	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Fully able	430 [a] (412.12) [b]	81 (83.38)	155 (147.69)	206 (218.37)	304 (314.44)	1176
All others	89 (106.88)	24 (21.62)	31 (38.31)	69 (56.63)	92 (81.56)	305
Total	519	105	186	275	396	1481

$X^2 = 10.94$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .05$ $C = .0805$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Adult's Capability to Work

Another measure of the physical potential of adjustment in the present study (among the sample families) is adult's capability to work. In order to measure this potential, an adult's capability to work index has been computed using the following formula: [26]

$$W = \frac{a + b/2}{a + b + c}$$

Where W = adult's capability to work index score,
a = Number of adults who are 14-64 years old and fully able to work,
b = Number of adults who are 14-64 years old and have a limited permanent disability
c = Number of adults who are 14-64 years old and are totally disabled.

The index scores thus computed ranged between 0.0—meaning that all adults are completely disabled—and 1.0 meaning that no adults are disabled. Retired family members were not included in the computation of this index, and family members in school who are 14 or more years old were considered fully able to work unless otherwise indicated.

The relationship of this variable to the five subregions is shown in Table 22. As seen in this table, there is no association between the subregions and the variable, adult's capability to work.

Table 22. Adult's capability to work by subregion

Adult's capability to work index scores	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
.0-.9	205 [a] (204.90) [b]	34 (36.53)	64 (69.89)	121 (101.97)	137 (147.71)	561
1.0	440 (440.10)	81 (78.47)	156 (150.11)	200 (219.03)	328 (317.29)	1205
Total	645	115	220	321	465	1766

$X^2 = 7.33$ d.f. $= 4$ $P > .05$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Household Dependency

Household dependency refers to the demographic aspect of a family in which the very young and very old are dependent on the support of other "economically active" members. The presence of the dependent members in a family is considered to be an important indicator of the family's potential for adjustment. The household dependency index for each family was computed using the following formula: [27]

$$D = \frac{1 + X}{1 + Y + Z},$$

Where D = the index score,
X = Number of family members whose age is 14-64,
Y = Number of family members whose age is under 14,
Z = Number of family members whose age is 64 and over.

As designed, the dependency index has no upper limit. Both upper and lower limits are determined by household size; for example, a two-person household would have a possible range of 0.3 to 3.0 while for a four-person household the limits would be 0.2 and 5.0. A one-person household should have a score of either 0.5 or 2.0.[28]

Table 23 shows that the household dependency index score is significantly associated with the five subregions.

Size of Family

The size of the family is also considered to be another indicator of the family's potential for adjustment. The relationship between size of family and the five subregions is shown in Table 24. As seen in this table, the relationship is not significant.

Table 23. Household dependency index score by subregion

Household dependency index score	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
.1-.9	186 [a] (194.59) [b]	45 (39.34)	73 (65.86)	101 (104.00)	146 (147.21)	551
1.0-1.9	204 (217.20)	41 (43.90)	89 (73.51)	125 (116.08)	156 (164.31)	615
2.0 or more	263 (241.21)	46 (48.76)	59 (81.63)	123 (128.92)	192 (182.48)	683
Total	653	132	221	349	494	1849

$X^2 = 16.59$ d.f. $= 8$ $P < .05$ $C = .0904$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 24. Size of family by subregion

Size of family	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
1-3	356 [a] (341.84) [b]	76 (70.56)	120 (116.56)	188 (182.94)	239 (267.10)	979
4 or more	298 (312.16)	59 (64.44)	103 (106.44)	162 (167.06)	272 (243.90)	894
Total	654	135	223	350	511	1873

$X^2 = 8.80$ d.f. $= 4$ $P > .05$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Migrant Children From Home

The number of migrant children which a family has may be an important indicator of family stage and adjustment. Evidently this factor is related to the chronological age of the head and homemaker. The relationship between this variable and the five subregions is presented in Table 25. As shown in this table, the relationship is significant.

Table 25. Migrant Children from home by subregion

Number of migrant children	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
None	259 [a] (293.16) [b]	80 (65.54)	115 (105.05)	154 (154.43)	236 (225.82)	844
1-2	166 (164.29)	25 (36.73)	55 (58.87)	89 (86.55)	138 (126.56)	473
3 or more	228 (195.55)	41 (43.73)	64 (70.08)	101 (103.02)	129 (150.62)	563
Total	653	146	234	344	503	1880

$X^2 = 22.92$ d.f. $= 8$ $P < .01$ $C = .1095$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Employment of Homemaker

The employment of the homemaker for wages or salary outside the home is regarded as an economic potential of adjustment for the family. The dichotomized employment status for the homemaker is presented in Table 26. The association between the employment status of the homemaker and the subregion is significant.

Table 26. Employment of homemaker by subregion

Employment status	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Not employed	530 [a] (452.97) [b]	81 (88.08)	167 (148.77)	214 (239.81)	247 (309.37)	1239
Employed	82 (159.03)	38 (30.92)	34 (52.23)	110 (84.19)	171 (108.63)	435
Total	612	119	201	324	418	1674

$X^2 = 120.29$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .001$ $C = .2588$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Size of Farm

For the farm families, the size of the farm operated is regarded as an important potential for socioeconomic adjustment. The sample farm families were dichotomized on the basis of the number of acres of farm land operated. The first category includes those with 74 or fewer acres; and the second category, with 75 or more acres. As seen in Table 27, the size of farm is significantly associated with the subregion.

Table 27. Size of farm by subregion

Acreage	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
74 or less	156 [a] (152.54) [b]	33 (27.48)	24 (26.36)	117 (133.48)	108 (98.14)	438
75 or more	116 (119.46)	16 (21.52)	23 (20.64)	121 (104.52)	67 (76.86)	343
Total	272	49	47	238	175	781

$X^2 = 10.07$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .05$ $C = .1127$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Anomia of Head and Homemaker

A modified version of Srole's scale items was used in order to measure respondents' anomia which has been variously termed pessimism, despondency, or alienation.[29] An acceptable Guttman type scale made up of six items was developed in the S-44 project.[30] The six items included in the scale are: (1) Things have usually gone against me in life. (2) It's hardly fair to bring children into the world with the way things look for the future. (3) Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself. (4) In spite of what some people say, the lot of the average man is getting worse, not better. (5) These days a person doesn't really know on whom he can count. (6) Even if his family objects, a man should choose a job that he thinks is best for him.

The anomia of the head and homemaker is considered a psychological factor which, as a potential, would influence the adjustment behavior of the family. The distributions of anomia among heads and homemakers are presented in Tables 28 and 29. As seen in these

Table 28. Anomia of head by subregion

Anomia scale score	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0-2	250 [a] (238.60) [b]	38 (44.17)	83 (71.03)	110 (129.78)	187 (184.42)	668
3-6	274 (285.40)	59 (52.83)	73 (84.97)	175 (155.22)	218 (220.58)	799
Total	524	97	156	285	405	1467

$X^2 = 11.88$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .02$ $C = .09094$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 29. Anomia of homemaker by subregion

Anomia scale score	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0-2	313 [a] (300.42) [b]	66 (60.87)	118 (105.54)	138 (157.58)	227 (237.59)	862
3-6	299 (311.58)	58 (63.13)	97 (109.46)	183 (163.42)	257 (246.41)	894
Total	612	124	215	321	484	1756

$X^2 = 10.46$ d.f. $= 4$ $P < .05$ $C = .0768$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

tables, there are significant regional differences among the five subregions with respect to anomia for both the head and the homemaker.

Job Mobility Aspiration

Job mobility aspiration used in this study refers to the aspiration of individuals to improve their social and economic situation by means of job mobility. It is evident that aspiration is closely related to the motivation of a person in the attainment of goals and to his attitude toward the change which might bring about a better chance of adjustment.

In order to measure the level or degree of aspiration for each family, husbands and wives were asked whether or not they would favor the husband taking a job at twice his present annual income under certain conditions which would require certain sacrifices. Two Guttman type scales, one for the husband and the other for the wife, were constructed, each composed of six of the conditions.[31] The six items or conditions contained in the scale for the husband are: (1) working at night; (2) moving to a new community; (3) giving up spare time; (4) working harder; (5) being away from family a lot; and (6) moving around country a lot. The scale for the wife also contains all of the above items except for the last one. This item was replaced by the item "keeping quiet about religious views."

The distribution of the aspiration scale scores for the head and the homemaker is presented in Tables 30 and 31. As seen in these tables, there is a significant difference among the subregions with respect to the job mobility aspiration for the homemaker, but not for the head.

Table 30. Job mobility aspiration for head by subregion

Aspiration scale scores	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0	86 [a]	9	29	47	72	243
	(87.60) [b]	(12.17)	(23.87)	(44.88)	(74.48)	
1-3	83	9	27	35	66	220
	(79.31)	(11.02)	(21.61)	(40.63)	(67.43)	
4-5	97	9	23	49	72	250
	(90.13)	(12.52)	(24.56)	(46.17)	(76.62)	
6	101	24	21	57	102	305
	(109.96)	(15.29)	(29.96)	(56.32)	(93.47)	
Total	367	51	100	188	312	1018

$X^2 = 16.06$ d.f. $= 12$ $P > .05$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Table 31. Job mobility aspiration for homemaker by subregion

Aspiration scale scores	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
0	117 [a]	14	37	36	87	291
	(104.34) [b]	(17.73)	(37.99)	(48.88)	(82.06)	
1-3	136	21	64	83	71	375
	(134.46)	(22.85)	(48.96)	(62.99)	(105.74)	
4-5	91	21	30	50	90	282
	(101.12)	(17.18)	(36.81)	(47.37)	(79.52)	
6	68	14	19	24	76	201
	(72.08)	(12.24)	(26.24)	(33.76)	(56.68)	
Total	412	70	150	193	324	1149

$X^2 = 45.13$ d.f. $= 12$ $P < .001$ $C = .2944$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

Aspiration of Head for Son's Occupation

Another of the motivational questions included in the present study relates to the occupational aspiration of the head for his son. In order to measure this particular aspect of head's aspiration, the head was asked to indicate what kind of job he would like to see his son do. The responses were classified into three categories: (1) farm operator or manager (2) manager, proprietor, professional or technical; and (3) all others.

The distribution of the aspiration of head for son's occupation is presented in Table 32. As seen in this table, there is a significant difference among the five subregions with respect to the aspiration of head for son's occupation.

Summary

The above analyses show that 16 of the 20 potentials of adjustment are significantly associated with subregions. No significant relationship was found for four potentials—age of homemaker (Table 14), adult's capability to work (Table 22), size of family (Table 24), and job mobility aspiration of head (Table 30).

Although these findings enable us to infer that there is a regional difference with respect to 16 of the 20 potentials of adjustment, a

Table 32. Aspiration of head for son's occupation by subregion

Occupation for son	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6	Total
Farm operator or manager	24 [a] (32.99) [b]	3 (5.69)	14 (8.61)	20 (19.85)	33 (26.86)	94
Professional, technical, manager or proprietor	264 (245.65)	44 (42.39)	76 (64.13)	169 (147.83)	147 (200.00)	700
All others	164 (173.36)	31 (29.92)	28 (45.26)	83 (104.32)	188 (141.14)	494
Total	452	78	118	272	368	1288

$X^2 = 56.25$ d.f. $= 8$ $P < .001$ $C = .2044$

[a] *Observed frequency;* [b] *Expected frequency*

further analysis is made in an effort to investigate how specifically each of the 16 potentials varies when each of the five subregions is compared with each of the other four subregions.

Subregional Variability of the Sixteen Potentials of Adjustment

In order to examine the subregional variability of the 16 potentials of adjustment which were shown to be of significance in the previous tests, the same procedure was followed as that indicated in the section "Subregional Variability of the Nine Levels of Adjustment." In this case, however, there are a total of 160 significance tests, for there are 16 variables to be dealt with. The proportions of each variable for each subregion and the significant differences between subregion pair proportions are shown in Table 33.

Out of the total of 160 tests of significance for the 16 variables, 78 or 48.8 percent are significant. Of the 16 variables, the variable color varied most within the region and the three variables age of head, ability of head to work, and size of farm did not vary at all. For the variable color, 7 out of 10 tests resulted in a significant difference. The significance of this variable was not found in the three paired comparisons of Subregions 2 and 5, Subregions 2 and 6, and Subregions 5 and 6. For the variable outside work of homemaker, 6 out of 10 tests are significantly different. Five tests for the type of residence variable resulted in a significant difference, while four were of significance in the tests for the variable head's aspiration for son's occupation.

For each of the variables marital status and homemaker's job mobility aspiration, 3 out of 10 tests are significant. On the other hand, 2 out of 10 tests are significant for each of the following four variables: education of head, education of homemaker, ability of head to work, and household dependency. For each of the variables children away from home, anomia of head, and anomia of homemaker, only 1 out of 10 tests is significantly different. None of the

Table 33. Potentials of adjustment of five subregions with significant differences with subregion proportions [a]

Potentials of adjustment	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6
Proportion of families with head's age under 49	.447[b]	.353	.479	.433	.487
	No subregion pairs are significantly different.				
Proportion of white families	.982	.504	.770	.526	.597
	Seven subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 2; Subregions 1 and 4; Subregions 1 and 5; Subregions 1 and 6; Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 4 and 5; Subregions 4 and 6				
Proportion of heads with 7 or less years of schooling	.534	.636	.446	.482	.581
	Two subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 4 and 6				
Proportion of homemakers with 7 or less years of schooling	.406	.519	.340	.352	.383
	Two subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 2 and 5				
Proportion of married heads	.783	.807	.881	.790	.773
	Three subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 4; Subregions 4 and 5; Subregions 4 and 6				
Proportion of families living on rural farm	.400	.461	.255	.496	.347
	Five subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 4; Subregions 1 and 5; Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 4 and 5; Subregions 5 and 6				
Proportion of heads who are fully able to work	.659	.659	.703	.584	.693
	Two subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 4 and 5; Subregions 5 and 6				
Proportion of homemakers who are fully able to work	.829	.771	.833	.749	.768
	No subregion pairs are significantly different.				
Proportion of families with high household dependency index scores: .1-1.9	.597	.652	.733	.648	.611
	Two subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 4; Subregions 4 and 6				

Table 33. (continued)

Potentials of adjustment	Subregion 1	2	4	5	6
Proportion of families with no children away from home	.397	.548	.492	.448	.469
	One subregion pair is significantly different: Subregions 1 and 2				
Proportion of families with homemakers working outside the home	.134	.319	.169	.339	.409
	Six subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 2; Subregions 1 and 5; Subregions 1 and 6; Subregions 2 and 4; Subregions 4 and 5; Subregions 4 and 6				
Proportion of families with farms of 74 or fewer acres	.574	.674	.511	.492	.617
	No subregion pairs are significantly different.				
Proportion of heads with low anomia scores: 0-2	.477	.392	.532	.386	.462
	One subregion pair is significantly different: Subregions 4 and 5				
Proportion of homemakers with low anomia scores: 0-2	.511	.532	.549	.430	.469
	One subregion pair is significantly different: Subregions 4 and 5				
Proportion of homemakers with low job mobility aspiration scores: 0-3	.614	.500	.673	.617	.448
	Three subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 6; Subregions 4 and 6; Subregions 5 and 6				
Proportion of heads aspired to professional and managerial jobs for their son	.584	.561	.644	.621	.400
	Four subregion pairs are significantly different: Subregions 1 and 6; Subregions 2 and 6; Subregions 4 and 6; Subregions 5 and 6				

[a] *The Ryan method of adjusted significance levels for multiple comparison of proportions at the .05 probability level experimentwise was used to test the significance of the differences of the paired proportions.*

[b] *Computed proportions, e.g., .447 = (163 + 129) ÷ 653 (Table 13).*

tests for the variables age of head, ability of homemaker to work, and size of farm are significant.

These findings are summarized in two different tables. Table 34 shows the significance for each of the 16 variables by paired subregions, while Table 35 presents a summary of the frequency distribution of significant differences between each combination of subregions for the 16 variables. From these significant differences, one is also able to examine the distinctiveness of the five subregions with respect to the potentials of adjustment. For each subregion related to each of the other four subregions with respect to each of the 16 variables, there are 64 tests of significance. This amounts to a total of 320 tests of significance, of which 160 are different tests. For the 160 different pairs of subregions, the number of significant differences in order of their frequencies are as follows:
Subregion 4 has 22 significant differences, Subregions 5 and 6 have 16 significant differences each, Subregion 1 has 14 significant differences, and Subregion 2 has 10 significant differences. A discussion of the distinctiveness of each subregion is presented below in decreasing order of the frequency of the significant differences.

Subregion 4 (Sandy Coastal Plains)

For this subregion, 22 out of the 64 tests are significant. The 22 significant differences are broken down as follows: 4 for color; 3 each for marital status and type of residence; 2 each for education of head, household dependency, and outside work of homemaker; and 1 each for education of homemaker, ability of head to work, anomia of head, anomia of homemaker, homemaker's job mobility aspiration, and head's aspiration for son's occupation. In terms of the number of significant differences, Subregion 4 is the most distinctive of all the five subregions with respect to the potentials of adjustment. Furthermore, this subregion, as in the levels of adjustment, appears to be the one with the highest potentials of adjustment among the subregions.

In comparison with Subregion 4, no subregion has proportionately more heads and homemakers with a higher education, a lower level of anomia, and a full ability to work. Also, this subregion is characterized by the lowest proportion of families living on the farm. Although the proportion of homemakers with a high job mobility aspiration is the lowest in the region, the proportion of heads with a high aspiration for the son's occupation is the greatest. On the other hand, this subregion has the highest proportions of families having high household dependency scores and heads who are other than married.

The proportion of white families in Subregion 4 is smaller than that of Subregion 1, but larger than like proportions in other subregions. The proportion of Subregion 4 families having younger heads is only less than that of Subregion 6, but again larger than that of the remaining subregions. This subregion has also the second smallest proportion of small farm families among the subregions, outranked only by Subregion 5. With respect to the proportion of families with

Table 34. Significance of 16 potentials of adjustment by paired subregions [a]

Paired subregions	Age of head	Color	Education of head	Education of homemaker	Marital status	Type of residence	Ability of head to work	Ability of homemaker to work	household dependency
Subregions 1 and 2	–	x	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Subregions 1 and 4	–	x	–	–	x	x	–	–	x
Subregions 1 and 5	–	x	–	–	–	x	–	–	–
Subregions 1 and 6	–	x	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Subregions 2 and 4	–	x	x	x	–	x	–	–	–
Subregions 2 and 5	–	–	–	x	–	–	–	–	–
Subregions 2 and 6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Subregions 4 and 5	–	x	–	–	x	x	x	–	–
Subregions 4 and 6	–	x	x	–	x	–	–	–	x
Subregions 5 and 6	–	–	–	–	–	x	x	–	–
Total number of significant differences	0	7	2	2	3	5	2	0	2

Paired subregions	Children away from home	Outside work of homemaker	Size of farm	Anomia of head	Anomia of homemaker	Homemaker's job mobility aspiration	Head's aspiration for son's occupation	Total number of significant differences
Subregions 1 and 2	x	x	–	–	–	–	–	3
Subregions 1 and 4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4
Subregions 1 and 5	–	x	–	–	–	–	–	3
Subregions 1 and 6	–	x	–	–	–	x	x	4
Subregions 2 and 4	–	x	–	–	–	–	–	5
Subregions 2 and 5	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
Subregions 2 and 6	–	–	–	–	–	–	x	1
Subregions 4 and 5	–	x	–	x	x	–	–	7
Subregions 4 and 6	–	–	–	–	–	x	x	6
Subregions 5 and 6	–	x	–	–	–	x	x	5
Total number of significant differences	1	6	0	1	1	3	4	39

[a] *"x" indicates significant difference and "—" indicates no significant difference*

Table 35. Distinctiveness of subregions by frequency of significant differences between each pair of subregions for 16 variables of adjustment potentials

Subregion	Number of significant differences out of 16 variables when compared with subregion			
	2	4	5	6
1	3	4	3	4
2		5	1	1
4			7	6
5				5

no children away from home, however, Subregion 4 is the largest except for Subregion 2.

Subregion 5 (Southeastern Hilly)

Sixteen of the 64 tests are significant for this subregion. The 16 significant differences are: 3 each for type of residence and outside work of homemaker; 2 each for color and ability of head to work; and 1 each for education of homemaker, marital status of the head, anomia of head and homemaker, homemaker's job mobility aspiration, and head's aspiration for son's occupation.

Of the five subregions this subregion has the highest proportion of families living on the farm. Proportionately, this subregion also has more heads and homemakers who are physically handicapped and have a higher level of anomia than any other subregion. The proportions of younger heads and white families are among the lowest in the region, only next to those of Subregion 2. On the other hand, the proportions of heads and homemakers with low education are smaller than those of Subregion 4, but larger than the remaining subregions. Also, the aspirational level of head for son's occupation is surpassed only by Subregion 4, but not by the other subregions. The proportion of homemakers working outside the home in this subregion is surpassed only by the like proportion in Subregion 6. The homemaker's job mobility aspiration in this subregion is slightly higher than that of Subregion 4, but lower than that of Subregions 6, 2, and 1. With respect to the proportion of small farms, Subregion 5 is the lowest among the subregions.

Subregion 6 (Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains)

For this subregion 16 of the 64 tests are significant. These 16 significant differences are: 4 for head's aspiration for son's occupation; 3 for homemaker's job mobility aspiration; 2 each for color and outside work of homemaker; and 1 each for education of head, marital status, type of residence, ability of head to work, and household dependency.

The aspirational level of heads for their son's occupation is the lowest in this subregion, among the five subregions. However, the

homemaker's job mobility aspiration is the highest in this subregion. This subregion has the largest proportion of homemakers working outside the home. The proportion of white families in Subregion 6 is smaller than Subregion 1, but larger than Subregion 2. Proportionately, there are more families with married heads, poorly educated heads, and low household dependency in Subregion 6 than in Subregion 4. Both the proportion of heads who are fully able to work and the proportion of families living in the rural nonfarm area in Subregion 6 are greater than those of Subregion 5.

Subregion 1 (Appalachian Mountains and Border)

Fourteen of the 64 tests are significant for this subregion. The 14 significant differences are: 4 for color; 3 for outside work of homemaker; 2 for type of residence; and 1 each for marital status, household dependency, number of children away from home, homemaker's job mobility aspiration, and head's aspiration for son's occupation.

No subregion studied has a higher proportion of white families nor a lower proportion of homemakers working outside the home than Subregion 1. In this subregion, more than 98 percent of the families are white and fewer than 14 percent of the homemakers are working outside the home for wages or salary. This subregion is also characterized by the highest proportions of families with low household dependency and high migration of children from the parental home. The proportion of married heads in Subregion 1 is smaller than that of Subregion 4, but the proportion of farm families in Subregion 1 is greater than that of Subregion 4. With respect to the latter proportion, Subregion 4 has a lower proportion than Subregion 5. In the area of aspiration, while the aspiration of homemakers toward job mobility in Subregion 1 is lower than that of Subregion 6, the head's aspiration for son's occupation is much higher in Subregion 1 than in Subregion 6.

Subregion 2 (Mississippi Delta)

Ten of the 64 tests are significant for this subregion. These 10 significant differences are: 2 each for color, education of homemaker, and outside work of homemaker; 1 each for education of head, type of residence, children away from home, and head's aspirations for son's occupation. Despite the fact that Subregion 2 is the least distinctive among the five subregions in terms of the number of significant differences, it is obvious that this subregion is the least favored subregion with respect to the potentials of adjustment, as it is for the levels of adjustment.

Of the five subregions, Subregion 2 has the highest proportions of families who are nonwhite, whose heads and homemakers are poorly educated, and whose children are not away from home. In addition, this subregion has proportionately more families with older heads and small farms than any other subregion. The proportion of families with homemakers working away from home in Subregion 2 is exceeded

only by the like proportions in Subregions 5 and 6. While the job mobility aspiration is high both for the heads and homemakers in Subregion 2, the head's aspirations for son's occupation is higher than that of Subregion 6, but lower than that of the other three subregions. The handicapped situation in Subregion 2, with respect to the potentials of adjustment, is seen by the fact that this subregion ranks either lowest or second lowest from the bottom for many variables dealt with in the present analysis. There is not a single variable for which Subregion 2 ranks the highest, as compared with the other four subregions.

Summary and Implications

The main purposes of this study are: (a) to determine if there are any differences in adjustment factors of rural families in low-income areas within the South, and (b) to indicate the manner in which the areas are distinctive from one another.

The underlying theoretical frame of reference is that the process of adjustment is basically a specific process of social mobility in which a family moves from one level of adjustment to another, with the potentials it possesses, towards the achievement of goals of the family system.

Seven levels of adjustment, presumably representing important goals for rural families and closely corresponding to the value-ends of the American society, have been selected. These are level of living, income, social participation, intrafamily joint decision making, home tenure, farm tenure, and occupation of head. Only one measure or index was used in the measurement for each of the above variables, except for the level of living and intrafamily decision making for which two measures were employed.

Twenty variables, i.e., age of head and homemaker, color, education of head and homemaker, marital status of head, type of residence, ability of head and homemaker to work, adult's capability to work, household dependence, children away from home, size of the family, outside work of homemaker, size of farm, anomia of head and homemaker, job mobility aspiration of head and homemaker, and aspiration of head for son's occupation, were selected as physical, socioeconomic, or sociopsychological potentials of adjustment.

Data for the study were obtained from a survey conducted in connection with the Regional Rural Sociological Research Project S-44, "Factors in the Adjustment of Families and Individuals in Low-Income Areas." Of the 1,908 rural families interviewed, 1,870 families are used for the major statistical analysis in the present study. These sample families were living in the open country portion of 30 low level of living and low-income counties in the states of Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas. In terms of subregions, however, they were residing in the five gen-

eralized low-income problem areas—Appalachian Mountains and Border, Mississippi Delta, Sandy Coastal Plains, Southeastern Hilly, and Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains.

Summary of Findings

The findings pertaining to the relationship of adjustment levels and potentials to the five subregions and the subregional variability of these adjustment factors may be summarized as follows:

1. All of the nine levels of adjustment—level of living (material possessions and communication items), income, social participation, joint decision making of head and homemaker, home and farm tenure, and occupation of head—are significantly associated with the subregions. Of these nine levels of adjustment, eight show a high subregional variability when each of the five subregions is related to each of the other subregions with respect to each of the levels of adjustment. While the level of home tenure varies most, followed by total family income and social participation, the homemaker's joint decision making does not vary at all among the five subregions.

2. Of the 20 potentials of adjustment, only 4 of them—age of homemaker, adult's capability to work, size of family, and aspiration of head toward job mobility—are not significantly associated with the subregions. On the other hand, the remaining 16 potentials of adjustment are found to be significantly associated with the subregions. Of these 16 potentials of adjustment, color, outside work of homemaker, type of residence, and aspiration of head for son's occupation show a high subregional variability, while age of head, ability of homemaker to work, and size of farm do not vary at all. The remaining potentials of adjustment—education of head and homemaker, marital status, ability of head to work, household dependency, children away from home, anomia of head and homemaker, aspiration of homemaker toward job mobility--also show some subregional variability.

The findings pertaining to the distinctiveness of the five subregions, from one to another, with respect to the levels and potentials of adjustment may be summarized as follows:

1. The analyses of the 90 different pairs of subregions for the nine levels of adjustment show that each subregion is highly distinctive one from another. The number of significant differences in levels of adjustment for each subregion, in order of high to low frequencies are: the Mississippi Delta, 24 significant differences; the Sandy Coastal Plains, 22 significant differences; the Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains, 21 significant differences; the Southeastern Hilly, 20 significant differences; and the Appalachian Mountains and Border, 15 significant differences.

2. In the analyses of the 160 different pairs of subregions for the 16 potentials of adjustment which were shown to be significantly re-

lated to the subregions, the number of significant differences for each subregion, in order of high to low frequencies are: the Sandy Coastal Plains, 22 significant differences; the Southeastern Hilly and the Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains, 16 significant differences each; the Appalachian Mountains and Border, 14 significant differences; and the Mississippi Delta, 10 significant differences.

3. Thus, each of the five subregions is highly distinctive one from another with respect not only to the levels of adjustment but also the potentials of adjustment. It is evident, however, that there is more distinctiveness between the subregions on the levels of adjustment than on the potentials of adjustment. Moreover, it is also obvious that certain characteristics are more important than others in establishing the distinctiveness of the subregions. The analyses show that the characteristics of home tenure, total family income, social participation, level of living, occupation of head, and farm tenure are of greater importance. Also, the variables color, type of residence, and outside work of homemaker are equally important in establishing the distinctiveness of the subregions.

4. Of the five subregions, the Mississippi Delta appears to be the most handicapped subregion, followed by the Southeastern Hilly, in terms of the levels and potentials of adjustment measured in this study. The Mississippi Delta is characterized by low level of living, low total family income, low participation, low joint decision making, and small proportions of farm and home owners.

Moreover, as compared with other subregions, the Mississippi Delta has proportionately more nonwhite families, fewer highly educated heads and homemakers, more rural farm families who own smaller farms, and more heads with high anomia and low aspiration for their son's occupation. The Southeastern Hilly is characterized by low levels of living and low family income. Proportionately, this subregion also has more nonwhite families, fewer educated heads, more rural farm families, more heads and homemakers with high anomia, and more heads who are physically handicapped.

5. The Sandy Coastal Plains appears to be the most favorable subregion in terms of the levels and potentials of adjustment. This subregion ranks the highest in the proportions of families having high levels of living, high family income, high joint decision making scores, and their own homes. This subregion is also characterized by relatively younger heads, fewer nonwhite families, high education for both heads and homemakers, more heads who are physically able to work, low anomia, and high level of aspiration of heads for their son's occupation.

6. In terms of levels of living, total family income, and social participation, the Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains outranks the Appalachian Mountains and Border. On the other hand, there are proportionately more families who own their homes and farms in the Appalachian Mountains than in the Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains. With respect to the potentials of adjustment which show sig-

nificant differences between the two subregions, the Appalachian Mountains subregion has proportionately more white families and more heads with a high occupational aspiration for their sons than the Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains. The latter subregion, however, has a significantly higher proportion of homemakers having a high job mobility aspiration than the former subregion. Although it is hard to rank these two subregions in order of the degree of adjustment, it appears that the Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains is slightly better than the Appalachian Mountains in terms of the levels of living, income, and participation. Also, proportionately, the Southern Piedmont and Coastal Plains has slightly more families with younger heads who are physically capable of working, and more rural nonfarm families than the Appalachian Mountains and the Border.

Practical Implications

The confirmation and the related findings of the distinctiveness of each subregion have some important implications. First of all, the change agencies concerned with the low-income problems in the South should take into account the similarities as well as the differences of adjustment factors, from one subregion to another, if any programs based on the area (or subregional) approach are to be effective and successful. In this connection, since all subregions extend over two or more state lines, the simultaneous attack on common problems by relevant neighboring states would accelerate the success of the programs if appropriate cooperation and coordination could be maintained.

In comparison to other regions in the nation, the rural South as a whole is known to have more adjustment problems in and out of agriculture. But the most handicapped subregion within the South appears to be the Mississippi Delta where most of the levels of adjustment are least favorable and many of the potentials of adjustment are also greatly limited. The situation in the Southeastern Hilly is also serious, next to the Mississippi Delta. This is quite contradictory to the general idea that the Appalachian area is the most poverty-stricken subregion in the South. The results of the present study show that more than anywhere else in the South "the war on poverty" and aid such as "the Federal Appalachian Program" are needed in the Mississippi Delta and the Southeastern Hilly areas.

Many reasons for the seriousness of adjustment problems in these two subregions may be offered. But the most important reason seems to lie in the social structure of these areas. That is to say, the variable color can be singled out as the fundamental factor for the seriousness. The data show that both subregions are overrepresented by nonwhite families as compared with other subsections. The white segments in the Appalachian Mountains are, of course, handicapped in many ways,

but the situation of the nonwhite segments in the Mississippi Delta is much more acute and desperate.

The relatively better adjusted situation in the Sandy Coastal Plains has also some practical significance. In contrast to other subregions, the Sandy Coastal Plains is characterized by higher proportions of heads and homemakers who are better educated, relatively young, physically less handicapped, and psychologically less anomic. Furthermore, a greater proportion of them are classified as nonfarm families. These results indicate, of course, the importance of education, nonfarm job opportunity, and physical capability for a better adjustment in low-income areas. At the same time, the findings also suggest that these important potentials of adjustment tend to go together in a kind of cluster. Therefore, the solution of adjustment problems may be enhanced if the plans and programs for reform are carried out with an integrated effort on the part of all related agencies and organizations in low-income areas.

Suggestions for Further Research

Although the theoretical frame of reference based on the concept of social mobility has been found useful in guiding the conceptualization of the adjustment process and the classification of the variables into the level and potential of adjustment, no attempt has been made in the present study to relate some of the significant potentials of adjustment to some important levels of adjustment.[32] Since most of the levels and many of the potentials of adjustment are significantly different from one subregion to another, the relationships between the levels and potentials might also differ from one subregion to another. The consideration of the subregions in the analysis, therefore, would likely facilitate better understanding about regional variability of the adjustment processes and factors. Such understanding, perhaps, could be utilized in the planning of action programs to deal with the problem of adjustment in the South.

The analyses of the present study have yielded some fruitful results in discriminating one subregion from another with respect to the selected variables. However, in the examination of the distinctiveness of subregions, all of the variables were dichotomized in order to facilitate the computation. This means that the resulting categories of the variables were gross and that some statistical significances might have been "washed out." Furthermore, the analyses were applied only to the collected data, without introducing any over-all environmental data which are closely related to the adjustment of rural families in each subregion. If such data as population change, industrial development, and availability of job opportunity had been tied into the analysis, the results may have been more productive.

Finally, the study shows that many levels and potentials of adjustment are more important than others in the distinctions of the

subregions. But, in view of the nature of social structure existing in the South, the color variable should have been controlled throughout the analysis. The findings concerning lower adjustment in the Mississippi Delta and the Southeastern Hilly do support this point. As indicated in other S-44 reports,[33] despite the fact that color is not significantly related to certain variables such as social participation and joint decision making, it is significantly related to such variables as level of living, income, and education—all of which are important factors in a better adjustment. No doubt, the adjustment problems and the processes of the nonwhite families are greatly different from the whites. Therefore, the controlled analysis might provide more adequate information for speeding up the solution of adjustment problems for the nonwhite families.

Footnotes

[1] See, for example, Bogue, Donald J. and Calvin L. Beale, 1961. Economic Areas of the United States. Free Press of Glencoe, Inc., New York. Also see, Perloff, H. S., E. S. Dunn, Jr., E. C. Lampard and R. F. Muth, 1960. Regions, Resources, and Economic Growth. Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore.

[2] Sisler, D. G., 1959. Regional differences in the impact of urban-industrial development of farm and nonfarm income. J. Farm Econ. 41:1100-1112. Also see, Ruttan, V. W. and L. T. Wallace, 1962. The effectiveness of location incentives on local economic development. J. Farm Econ. 44:968-978.

[3] Larson, O. F., 1955. Sociological aspects of the low-income farm. J. Farm Econ. 37:1417-1427.

[4] Rogers, Everett M., 1960. Social Change in Rural Society: A Textbook in Rural Sociology. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York.

[5] Mayo, Selz C., 1961. What's happening to the southern population? Agricultural Policy Institute. Southern agriculture—its problems and policy alternatives. Agricultural Policy Institute, North Carolina State University, Raleigh.

[6] Kaufman, Harold F., 1960. The south, *in* Rogers, Everett M., *op cit.*, pp. 465-469.

[7] Hagood, Margaret J., Gladys K. Bowles and Robert R. Mount, 1957. Farm operator family level-of-living indexes for counties of the United States, 1945, 1950, and 1954. U. S. Dep. Agr. Statistical Bull. No. 204. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington.

[8] The act establishing the Tennessee Valley Authority and "the Federal Appalachia Program" is also such an example.

[9] Eaton, W. H., 1947. Alternative meaning of adjustment. Amer. Sociol. Rev. 12:75-81.

[10] Wright, Verne, 1942. Summary of literature on social adjustment. Amer. Sociol. Rev. 7:407-422.

[11] Mangalam, J. J., Harry K. Schwarzweller and James S. Brown, 1962. A reconsideration of the notion of adjustment: an exploration (mimeographed paper). Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station, Lexington.

[12] *Ibid.*, pp. 14-15.

[13] McCann, Glenn C., 1961. North Carolina rural adjustment studies: a study of farm families and their levels of living-income patterns in Watauga County, North Carolina. Progress Report RS-39. Department of Rural Sociology, North Carolina Agri. Exp. Sta., Raleigh.

[14] Kaufman, Harold F. and John E. Dunkelberger, 1960. Classifying families in low-income and rural areas. De Rivista Sociologia. 22:179-192.

[15] Eaton, W. H., *op. cit.*

[16] Westoff, Charles F., Marvin Bressler and Philip C. Sagi, 1960. The concept of social mobility: an empirical inquiry. Amer. Sociol. Rev. 25:375-385.

[17] Kaufman, Harold F. and John E. Dunkelberger, *op. cit.*

[18] For further information on the S-44 project, see Cleland, Charles L., 1964. Regional project organization and data comparability. Rur. Sociol. 29:194-199.

[19] United States Department of Agriculture, 1955. Development of agriculture's human resources: a report on problems of low-income farmers—prepared for the Secretary of Agriculture. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington.

[20] Ryan, T. A., 1960. Significance tests for multiple comparison of proportions, variances, and other statistics. Psychol. Bull. 57:318-328.

[21] For detailed information, see Cleland, Charles L. (ed.), Scaling social data: a comparison of various techniques used in scale construction (forthcoming in 1965), Agri. Exp. Sta. of Ala., Fla., Ky., La., Miss., N. C., Tenn., and Texas.

[22] For a rationale of this assumption, see Blood, R. O., Jr. and D. M. Wolfe, 1960. Husbands and Wives: the Dynamics of Married Living. Free Press of Glencoe, Inc. Also see Wilkening, Eugene A., 1958. Joint decision making in farm families. Amer. Sociol. Rev. 23:187-192.

[23] For detailed information on the construction of the scale, see Cleland, Charles L. (ed.), *op cit.* (forthcoming in 1965).

[24] Ryan, T. A., *op. cit.*

[25] Bureau of the Census, 1962. United States Census of Population—1960. PC(1) 1C, U. S., U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington.

[26] Cleland, Charles L., 1963. Two indexes for rural households—dependency and capability to work. Revision of a paper presented at Southern Sociological Society meeting, Durham, N. C., April, 1963.

[27] *Ibid.*

[28] *Ibid.*

[29] Srole, Leo, 1956. Social integration and certain corollaries: an exploratory study. Amer. Sociol. Rev. 21:709-716.

[30] For further detail, see Cleland, Charles L. (ed.) *op. cit.*, (forthcoming in 1965.)

[31] For further detail, see Cleland, Charles L. (ed.) *op. cit.*, (forthcoming in 1965.)

[32] The relationships between some selected levels and potentials of adjustment are presented elsewhere. See Moon, Seung Gyu, 1963. A study of factors in the adjustment of rural families in low-income areas. Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Rural Sociology, North Carolina State University, Raleigh.

[33] Moon, Seung Gyu, *op. cit.*